

# A Model of Management Academics' Intentions to Influence Values

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*Business schools face increased criticism for failing in the teaching of management studies to nurture their students' values. Assuming that individual academics play an important role in shaping the value-related influence of business schools, I model management academics' intentions to influence values. The suggested model encompasses academics' economic and social values as internal variables, as well as perceived support for attempting to influence values and academic tenure as social and structural variables. A test with empirical data from 1,254 management academics worldwide reveals that perceived external support is most relevant for explaining intentions. Moreover, academics' social values, but not their economic ones, contribute to an explanation of their intentions to influence values. The results reveal how important it is for academics to believe that their colleagues, higher education institutions, and other stakeholders support their value-related behavioral intentions.*

In the past decade we have witnessed an increasingly lively debate about management education's role in shaping good business practice. The exposure of corporate bankruptcies (e.g., Enron, World-Com), which were at least partly rooted in managerial ethical misbehavior, has confronted business schools with increased demand to educate managers to perceive their profession as an ethically based one (Khurana & Nohria, 2008; Nelson, Poms, & Wolf, 2012; Trank & Rynes, 2003). Despite some discussion of business schools' impact on students' values (Luthar & Karri, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005), management education seemingly equips students with all kinds of short-term profit maximization tools but few moral perspectives (Ghoshal, 2005; Kashyap, Mir, & Iyer,

2006; McPhail, 2001; Wang, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2011). Companies thus bemoan business schools' failure to deliver normative guidance within the scope of management education (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Kashyap et al., 2006), although most discussions involve the management discipline as a whole or focus on business schools and the impact of media and accreditation councils (Trank & Rynes, 2003), without considering the role of individual academics. Yet this individual perspective is key, because academics are most proximal to students, and thus, are the people who deliver education. They attain role model status; however, academics also are human beings with their own values, which they cannot shake off just by entering a classroom.

I therefore argue that academics can take an active role in delivering values to management students. In this context, I consider academics' intentions to exert value-related influences on their students as an important prerequisite of their actual influence. This argument aligns with a generally accepted relationship between behavioral intentions and related outcomes, as postulated by the theories of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 2002) and applied previously to educational contexts (Garg & Garg, 2008; Kim, Goto,

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Bai, Kim, & Wong, 2001; Thornburg & Pryor, 1998) and value-related issues (Dunlap, Grieneekes, & Rokeach, 1983; Oreg & Katz-Gerro, 2006). Value-related socialization effects may occur regardless of intentions, such as when academics teach theories with specific normative foundations (Ferraro, Pfeffer, & Sutton, 2005), but can be controlled and managed by business schools only if they are intentional. Thus, an understanding of management academics' intentions to influence student values can better enable business schools to shape students into future ethical managers. I aim to answer the key question of what determines management academics' intentions to influence student values.

I first argue that values influence managers in their decisions to behave ethically or not. Therefore, I define values and depict their behavioral impact. I show that economic and social values are relevant drivers of both management misbehavior and its prevention. Furthermore, I argue that management academics can contribute to the prevention of misbehavior by influencing the values of their students who are already managers or intend to become such. Thereafter, I explain how values shift during the process of socialization in general and in particular through a management curriculum. The posited hypotheses attempt to explain academics' intentions to influence values through their economic and social values as internal variables, as well as through related perceived support and academic tenure as social and structural variables. I test these hypotheses with empirical data from a global study of management academics. These results may help university administrators and academic associations (e.g., AOM) understand academics' individual roles in the process of shaping value-related behavior and thus undertake supportive action to enhance tertiary education's influence and create more ethical business practices.

## THEORETICAL BACKGROUND, VALUES, AND SOCIALIZATION

### Values and Their Behavioral Relevance

Similar to Kluckhohn (1951: 395), I consider values the "conception . . . of the desirable." They can operate at an individual (student, manager, management academic) or a collective (student cohort, company, department, community) level. Values constitute part of human identity (Gecas, 2000), and value-congruent behavior is particularly prominent when people perceive certain values as important (Verplanken & Holland, 2002). Research provides evidence of behavioral changes based on

value changes (Ball-Rokeach, Rokeach, & Grube, 1984; Rokeach, 1973). Other factors, such as attitudes and intentions, also influence behavior (Williams, 1979), but values' behavioral impact is particularly high, because they act as antecedents to attitudes and intentions and have an additional mediated behavioral impact. Their relevance also depends on the type of behavior, such as voting or purchasing (Kahle, 1996), and the type of values.

For example, Bardi and Schwartz (2003) compare the behavioral relevance of universalism values—the "understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature" (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994: 167)—with benevolence values, or the "preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact" (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994: 167). In three experiments, they correlate values with universal (e.g., using environmentally friendly products) and benevolent (e.g., easy agreement to lend things to neighbors) behaviors and find that universalism values ( $r = .55$ ) are more predictive of related self-reported behavior than are benevolence values ( $r = .30$ ).

For this study, I therefore assume a connection between values and good or bad management behavior, as supported by research that indicates such a positive relationship between values and ethical behavior. Surveying 340 middle-level managers, Suar and Khuntia (2010) recognize that values such as social concern significantly reduce unethical practices. Moreover, recent evidence indicates that the financial turmoil of 2008 was a result of managers' likelihood of performing behaviors with individual benefits but also downside risks that affected society at large (FCIC, 2011). Much of British Petroleum's Deep Water Horizon failure resulted from an overemphasis on economic aims, with parallel neglect of social values (Sawayda, 2010). More generally, behavior rooted in economic values reduces personal well-being and diminishes value for the community (Kasser, 2002). With their basis in such economic values, current business practices often foster greedy behaviors (Wang, Deepak, & Murnighan, 2011), and fail to deliver sustainable service to humanity (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992).

Giacalone and Thompson (2006) describe this mainstream ideology as an *organization-centered worldview* that is based on economic values and fosters desires for power and financial gain, which may "result in deleterious outcomes" (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006: 267). A more *human-centered worldview* would be based on social values and foster behavior that promotes human advancement, including concern for community, quality of

life (Inglehart, 1997; Ray & Anderson, 2000), social well-being (Keyes, 1998), transcendent values (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003), the desire for a greater voice in personal and social decisions (Inglehart, 1997; Ray & Anderson, 2000), a balance of individual and community needs (Gozdz, 1995) across generations (Fox, 1994), and a shift away from materialistic desires (Ray & Anderson, 2000). In the following section, I depict how these two world-views connect to traditional values research and academic values in particular.

### **Economic and Social Value Perspectives in Management Academia and Practice**

Current debates attempt to assign economic and social responsibilities to companies and students (Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Kolodinsky, Madden, Zisk, & Henkel, 2010) and discuss academia's influence on perceptions of such responsibilities (Pfeffer, 2005; Trank & Rynes, 2003). An acceptance of responsibilities depends on the person's underlying values, according to the established link between values and related behaviors. Thus, socially responsible behavior is based on social values. I demonstrate the relevance of organization- versus human-centered value dimensions for individual academics by depicting how this perspective relates to current debates on academic values, as well as to existing empirical values research.

The two dimensions relate to management phenomena and thus constitute a key reference point in management academics' discipline-related identity, as well as to their roles as teachers and researchers in general. In particular, they contribute to the debate about academic and educational values (Levin, 2006). They also correspond to the conflict between utilitarian and normative identities that regularly arises in universities (Albert & Whetten, 1985). In higher education institutions, the economic dimension is reflected by the growing use of technical management knowledge to cope with new challenges (Deem & Brehony, 2005; Ferlie, Ashburner, Fitzgerald, & Pettigrew, 1996; Trow, 1994). The search for more relevant management research (Starkey & Madan, 2000) also grants corporations greater influence over research topics and reduces academic autonomy (Bennich-Björkman, 2007; Dill, 2003; MacLean, MacIntosh, & Grant, 2002; for a comprehensive discussion of academic-practitioner engagement see Hughes, Bence, Grisoni, O'Regan, & Wornham, 2011). This rigor-versus-relevance debate reflects often implicit assumptions about the role of values in higher education, as in the collision of more eco-

nomic corporate values with society-related academic values (Tasker & Packham, 1993).

On the individual level, academic entrepreneurship (Etzkowitz, 1983; Wasser, 1990), defined as academics' "attempt to increase individual or institutional profit, influence, or prestige through . . . research-based products" (Louis, Blumenthal, Gluck, & Stoto, 1989: 110), constitutes a perspective given great importance according to empirical research. In 20 in-depth interviews with doctoral students in a science and engineering department of a U.S. Research I university, Mendoza (2007) finds extensive evidence of academic entrepreneurship in the socialization of doctoral students. Applying qualitative and quantitative methods to management academics in Canada and the United Kingdom, Stiles (2004) also finds that when they come in conflict with academic values, such as scientific standards and criteria (Altbach, 2001), practical values that reflect the business world dominate in the effort to balance various academic (e.g., department and scientific community) and nonacademic (e.g., students, businesses) group interests.

This tension between a societal and an economic view not only aligns with Giacalone and Thompson's (2006) critique of business practice but also corresponds with general values research. Building on seminal work by Rokeach (1973), Schwartz (1992, 2004) suggests 10 generic values (Oishi, Schimmack, Diener, & Suh, 1998; Spini, 2003), as well as two dipoles: (1) openness to change versus conservation and (2) self-transcendence versus self-enhancement. The latter "opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare (universalism and benevolence) to those emphasizing the pursuit of one's own relative success and dominance over others (power and achievement)" (Schwartz, 1994: 25)—remarkably similar to the basis for Giacalone and Thompson's (2006) conceptualization of a human-centered versus organization-centered worldview.

The economic versus social values dipole also finds correspondence on a macro level. It is reflected in the dominance of masculine value features, such as assertiveness and focus on money acquisition, over more feminine values, such as the caring for others and a focus on quality of life (Hofstede, 2001). Using the psychodynamic features that underlie self-enhancement and self-transcendence values (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994), Inglehart (1977) also identifies a value change from material to postmodern values in the 1970s, followed by a more recent shift back to more material values (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). These macro changes on the societal level may reflect shifting experiences

of scarcity (e.g., from lack of food and clothes to scarcity of meaning and social bonds) during childhood for many members of the population. This theorization suggests the need to attend to the process of changing values, particularly as a psychosociological phenomenon.

### Changing Values Through Socialization

Value development and internalization often is attributed to social interaction during value socialization processes (Rice, 2001). Socialization describes a process of becoming a participating member of a group (Danziger, 1971) by acquiring the "attitudes, beliefs, values and skills needed to participate effectively in organized social life" (Dunn, Rouse, & Seff, 1994: 375). Value influences once a person reaches adulthood are referred to as "secondary" or "adult" socialization (Becker, 1970; Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). Compared with primary socialization, secondary socialization is more controllable by the subject (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978; White, 1952) and usually directed toward adopting role-specific values and behaviors (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). This notion supports the potential development of a focus on economic and social values specific to the business world.

Secondary socialization also tends to entail human integration into an organization (Cable & Parsons, 2001). It may occur through an agency directed toward the socialization task (Rosow, 1974) or as a process by which people adapt to the group they want to enter (Van Maanen, 1983). Business schools constitute identity workspaces of anticipatory socialization (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010) and a central agency of socialization for businesspeople (Tierney, 1997), providing a basic foundation for the attitudes, professional skills, and value orientations of next-generation business professionals (Gomez-Mejia, 1983; Lämsä, Turjanmaa, & Säkkinen, 2003). For example, empirical research identifies successful socialization as a precondition of success in an organizational role that a person aims to adopt in general (Hebden, 1986; Taormina, 2009), as well as in academic contexts in particular (Dunn et al., 1994; Lichty & Stewart, 2000; Trowler & Knight, 1999).

Business school socialization involves an interaction of formal and informal elements (Bauer & Green, 1994). Formal socialization is realized within the scope of a defined curriculum, which provides certain structures for integrating students (e.g., freshman week), and coordinated colloquia. Informal socialization instead describes processes by which role models, peers, or mentors convey

values and habits (Armitage, 2007). Whereas formal socialization stereotypically is anchored in the institution, top-down, and is self-directed, informal socialization is anchored in the individual and thus entails an interaction oriented toward the other (Leavitt, 1991; Trocchia & Berkowitz, 1999).

Regarding an individual academic's value influence in business schools, I predict stronger impacts from the academic institution on formal value socialization, whereas the individual academic should have a stronger influence on informal socialization approaches. Both levels are relevant for modeling management academics' intentions to influence values. With this socialization framework, I develop a model to explain academics' intention to influence values and actively shape the impact of socialization on students.

### MODELING ACADEMICS' VALUE-RELATED INTENTIONS

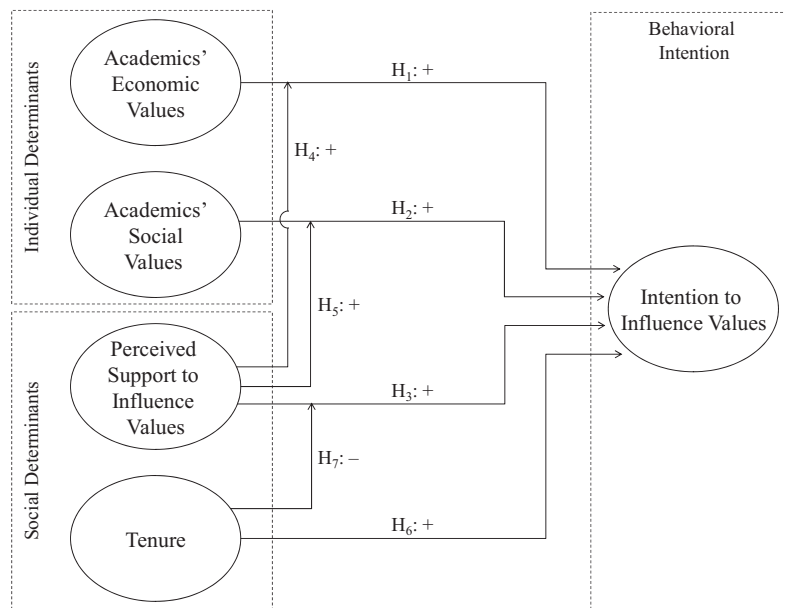
In this section, I develop a model (Figure 1) to explain management academics' intention to influence values according to their own individual values, as well as their perceptions of support and academic tenure as social and structural antecedents (for a comprehensive discussion of determinants of academics' intention to influence values, see Moosmayer & Bode, 2010).

#### Intention to Influence Values

The key variable of the model, intention to influence values (*intention*), describes an academic's individual behavioral intention to affect student values, in line with the extant assumption that management academics can influence their students' values. The theories of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen, 2002; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005) set intentions as important antecedents of related behaviors. To help higher education institutions and associations coordinate and support value-related influences, it is necessary to understand what drives academics' intentions.

Management academics may aim to exert value-related influences on their students through teaching content, such as making values part of their lessons (Skinner, 1968) or teaching theory anchored in certain value positions (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006). Informally, values appear in the ways people get along within the academic institution (Reynolds, Creemers, Stringfield, Teddlie, & Schaffer, 2002), which may explain how academic teachers influence students' value positions by acting as role models (Veugelers & Vedder, 2003). Teaching styles and forms, the extent of student participa-





**FIGURE 1**  
**A Model of the Intention to Influence Values**

tion, and the professor–student relationship also may be relevant (Kragh & Bislev, 2005).

Business school students acquire values and attitudes about the roles and responsibilities of business and managers in society (Lämsä, Vehkaperä, Puttonen, & Pesonen, 2008). These acquisition processes include organizational socialization of the values and practices of business schools as academic institutions (Pfeffer, 2005), as well as anticipatory socialization into business life (Lämsä et al., 2003). I consider these socializing influences on students at undergraduate (Berger & Berger, 1983), graduate, and executive (Leavitt, 1991) levels, and specifically at the doctoral level (Trocchia & Berkowitz, 1999).

### An Academic's Value Base

In line with values research, I investigate economic and social values in an academic's value base, which also reflect the value-related roots of the organization- and human-centered views in management theory (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006) and corporate demands for more socially responsible positions in business schools (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005). In the model, I propose values as determinants of academics' intentions to influence, on the basis of a basic understanding of values as conceptions of the desirable (Kluckhohn, 1951). That is, values describe the state of the world that a person desires. It thus is reasonable to predict that people with a strong blueprint of an ideal world, whose values have high centrality, are more

likely to engage in conveying their values to others to make the world a better place, in their opinion. Accordingly, people with stronger values should be more motivated to pass their values on in their environment.

Verplanken and Holland (2002) identify two conditions that transform values into behaviors. First, values must be central to the self and important to the individual. Second, they must be activated, through a stimulated application to the situation. In business schools, the activation of economic values is omnipresent: Most content is based on underlying economic theory (Ferraro et al., 2005; Giacalone & Thompson, 2006). Academics often educate students about management practices that demand economic values for success (Hebden, 1986; Taormina, 2009). Accordingly, economic values get activated, and conveying them may be considered an appropriate aim for management academics.

In such an environment, the centrality of academics' economic values becomes a key determinant of the values' behavioral relevance. Academics' intention to pass on economic values then may depend on the individual-level centrality of economic values. I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 1: The stronger the presence of economic values in an academic's value base, the stronger the academic's intention to influence students' values.*

Social values constitute the second relevant factor for management. They are a prerequisite of responsible management behavior and sustain-

able business practices (Carroll, 1979; GRI, 2002). Thus, a parallel argument applies: More centralized social values should lead to their higher behavioral relevance and thus stronger intentions to influence.

A further argument acknowledges that social values are less prevalent in the content taught in business school compared with economic values (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006). For academics with high social values, there might be some dissonance between their values and the values that underlie mainstream teaching content. According to symbolic self-completion theory (Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1982), such dissonance leads to a perception of self-incompleteness, so people undertake restorative measures (Wagner, Wicklund, & Shaigan, 1990). That is, more central social values lead to greater dissonance and a greater need to compensate for dissonances, which may then result in a stronger intention to influence others' values.

Furthermore, socialization is particularly effective when it is nurturing and integrates strong formal and informal elements (Trocchia & Berkowitz, 1999). Such integrated, nurturing approaches are particularly associated with the feminine values of maintaining relationships and caring (Gilligan, 1982) and thus with social orientations and values (Lämsä et al., 2003). This connection reinforces the notion of a strong link between social values and intention to influence values. Because this argument is based on the characteristics of social values, it corresponds with the recognition that social values, because they are relationship-oriented and associated with acceptance of responsibility, target connections with others and aim to affect society in a positive way, through consideration of the influences on various stakeholders. That is, they are associated with a strong intention to exert an impact on society through one's own work and interactions with others. For teaching, this intention may emerge as an increased intention to influence others' values, and thus:

*Hypothesis 2: The stronger the presence of social values in an academic's value base, the stronger the academic's intention to influence values.*

### Perceived Support for Influencing Values

Together with an academic's value base, an internal determinant of academics' intentions to influence values, I integrate academics' personal normative environment in the form of perceived external support from colleagues, students, and

companies for value influence attempts (perceived support). In their personal environment, academics' local and disciplinary colleagues exert a great impact, because they constitute an individual academic's socialization environment (Corcoran & Clark, 1984; Lichty & Stewart, 2000; Tierney, 1997; Trowler & Knight, 1999). By also considering students, I note that business school students are active participants in the educational process, and adult socialization usually is a bidirectional process that requires the subjects' active participation (Bengtson & Black, 1973; Riley, Johnson, & Foner, 1972). Finally, companies' demands may apply some normative pressure, because businesses are a key stakeholder for management education (Reingold, 1998). The requirements that companies establish for new employees also likely affect the processes and contents of management education (Trank & Rynes, 2003). The general relevance of the environment is further emphasized by the prediction that socialization effects are effective on individual academics. Thus, I predict that perceived support positively influences intentions.

*Hypothesis 3: The greater the perceived external support for influencing values, the stronger the academic's intention to influence values.*

In line with social cognition theory (Bandura, 1997, 2000), perceived external support for value-influencing behavior might help transform individual values into intentions and behaviors. In this context, Nelson, Poms, and Wolf (2012) discuss the particular importance of efficacy beliefs for the effectiveness of value-related education. Furthermore, Verplanken and Holland (2002) demonstrate experimentally that the transformation of central values into adequate behaviors improves when values have been activated by external cognitive stimuli. They specifically compare behaviors on a cognitive task that cited the environment versus one without such a prompt and find that value-consistent behavior is enhanced by an environment-related task. In general, knowledge structures need to be activated to affect information processing and behavior (Higgins, 1996; Kruglanski, 1996), so it is reasonable to expect that communication about values will activate academics' values and intentions to express these values in their teaching, a task central to their identity.

Research that demonstrates reinforcing effects on values and related behaviors when an occupational experience is rewarding further supports this proposal (Mortimer & Lorence, 1979). If an academic's environment—colleagues, companies, students—appreciate the academic's activities to influence others' values, the transformation of val-

ues into related behavioral intentions gets reinforced. Furthermore, Tierney (1997) highlights the importance of informal interactions with colleagues to understand the values and behaviors in an academic institution. Perceptions of support in such interactions thus should help or hinder the transformation of individual values into related intentions and behaviors. I thus expect perceived support to moderate the relationship between academics' values and their intentions.

*Hypothesis 4: The greater the perceived support, the stronger the impact of academics' economic values on academics' intentions to influence values.*

*Hypothesis 5: The greater the perceived support, the stronger the impact of academics' social values on academics' intentions to influence values.*

### Academic Tenure

I have suggested the strong link of values to social identity (Brock, 2006). Two main tendencies describe value influences by social structure constructs, such as class, occupation, and status (Kohn, Naoi, Schoenbach, Schooler, & Slomczynski, 1990; Slomczynski, Miller, & Kohn, 1981). First, certain values are necessary to succeed in certain occupations or to reach certain positions (values as a cause). Second, socialization hypothesis indicates that values of individuals shift over time toward those of their social class or occupational in-group (values as an effect). In an academic context, social occupational status is strongly linked to the concept of academic tenure (Finkin, 1998), which usually requires assimilation into an institution's processes, approaches, and values (Chatman, 1989; Tang & Chamberlain, 2003). Considering the socializing effects of the tenure process, tenured academics' goals and values should generally match those of their institution. Furthermore, during the tenure process, dependence on colleagues and recognition of external demands and requirements is high; tenured colleagues, with their lifetime positions, enjoy greater freedom and independence (Baldrige, 1971). Dependence by nontenured faculty has become even stronger recently as schools reduce the portion of faculty to whom they grant tenure and rely more on part-time or adjunct faculty members (Boyer, Altbach, & Whitelaw, 1994).

For academics' intention to influence values, these two aspects of tenure have different effects. First, organization-based self-esteem and experiences are prerequisites for effective mentoring (Tang & Chamberlain, 2003), so tenure requires

successful value socialization and grants social status. Tenured academics then should feel more confident about representing their institution and have sufficient maturity to mentor and pass on values.

*Hypothesis 6: Academics with tenure have higher intentions to influence values.*

Second, the job security and independence obtained from tenure (Baldrige, 1971) implies instead that nontenured academics would be more responsive to external demands and pressures. Nontenured academics then should be particularly responsive to external support but perceive external hurdles as a barrier to transforming their values into intentions. With regard to external support, I thus expect a higher impact on nontenured academics' intention to influence.

*Hypothesis 7: For academics without tenure, perceived support has higher impact on intentions to influence values.*

### METHODS

#### Approach and Sample

I test these hypotheses using data from a broader project on management academics' values and their intentions to convey these values to students and corporate environments. The project was supported by the International Federation of Scholarly Associations of Management (IFSAM), an international umbrella organization of 15 national academies of management (e.g., AOM, China National Economic Management Association [CNEMA], *Fondation Nationale pour L'Enseignement de la Gestion des Entreprises* [FNEGE in France], Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management [ANZAM]). The project involved an on-line survey conducted from January to April 2006 among management academics in IFSAM member organizations.

The distribution of the questionnaire included the IFSAM network; associations received texts to encourage their members to participate. The survey website started with an introduction to this first IFSAM research project and was signed by the IFSAM president and endorsed by the IFSAM member associations participating in the survey dissemination. To encourage academics' participation still further, they received guarantees of response anonymity and entered into a drawing to win 10 vouchers from an on-line book store, worth US\$100 each. Each association invited its members in the way it found most appropriate, such as by way of its website, in its newsletter, or through a distinct e-mail invitation. The survey administrators also distributed personalized invitations

through direct e-mailings if an association's initial efforts did not result in sufficient responses. Because the distribution of the access link was not under exclusive control of the research team, I cannot report response rates for the overall survey. However, response rates for individual mailing efforts ranged from 5% in the United States to 30% in India. The initial sample contained 1,741 responses, but for this study, I use only those 1,254 observations that contain complete information for all items under investigation.

The sample characteristics with regard to country, gender, tenure, and discipline are shown in Table 1. The sample reflects some particularities of the IFSAM member associations. Most associations focus on national membership but include some international members, and many target professors of business administration. Accordingly, the regional split follows the boundaries of the IFSAM member associations (e.g., Nordic Academy of Management in Scandinavia). For both regional and discipline splits, the "other" section gathers smaller groups, such as Argentina, the Netherlands, Russia, or South Africa (less than 20 respondents per country) and innovation management or entrepreneurship (less than 30 respondents per discipline).

## Measures

For the intention and support constructs, no appropriate measures were available; existing generic value scales also seemed too general to capture the particular context of management

academics' economic and social values and insufficiently concrete to address the role-specific level of adult socialization. Therefore, the items to measure these constructs were derived from conceptual considerations and existing work. Discussions of an early version of the questionnaire with IFSAM council members focused particularly on completeness and applicability to diverse countries and disciplines. The interview partners, often former presidents of their associations, supported the applicability of the survey instrument and found the operationalizations convincing; they suggested only minor amendments, such as an additional item in the social values measure. The final questionnaire is available in Hansen, Moosmayer, Bode, and Schrader (2007).

Nevertheless, because the lack of an established measurement model might pose some threat to the results' reliability and validity, I split the sample randomly into two halves. I established and purified the measurement model based on the first half, then evaluated the hypotheses with the second half. In this section, I present the measurement model evaluation based on the first half.

## Intention to Influence Values

The key construct is academics' intentions to influence values. It covers academics' formal and informal value socialization attempts in a management education program. Value socialization is relevant at undergraduate (Berger & Berger, 1983), master's

**TABLE 1**  
**Sample Composition by Work Location, Gender, Tenure, and Discipline (N = 1,254)**

	Overall Sample	Women (%)	Tenure (%)	Discipline							
				F&A	HRM	IM	Mgmt.	Mktg.	Org. Stud.	PM	Others
Australia & NZL	176	31	60	32	11	18	45	34	12	6	18
Canada	45	36	49	8	7	7	9	6	6	0	2
China	61	38	25	7	11	2	27	10	1	2	1
DACH	223	17	71	44	11	28	41	34	24	22	19
France	92	29	84	17	7	6	27	20	7	3	5
India	53	6	58	8	2	3	11	10	6	8	5
Japan	61	5	77	4	8	2	24	1	7	5	10
Scandinavia	180	21	53	24	4	13	45	34	24	7	29
Spain	62	35	74	5	8	2	20	7	11	6	3
UK	132	30	57	18	19	4	27	15	16	11	22
USA	85	27	49	17	4	4	23	18	8	3	8
Others	84	27	48	10	11	2	28	13	11	5	4
All	1,254	25%	60%	194	103	91	327	202	133	78	126

Note. NZL = New Zealand; DACH = Germany, Austria, and Switzerland; F&A = finance & accounting; HRM = human resource management; IM = information management; Mgmt. = management; Mktg. = marketing; Org. Stud. = organization studies; PM = production management.



and executive master's (Leavitt, 1991), and doctoral education levels (Lichty & Stewart, 2000; Tierney, 1997; Trocchia & Berkowitz, 1999). Accordingly, the applied scale evaluates academics' individual intention to influence students' values through teaching at these four levels (Table 2).

All the latent variables used a 5-point Likert-type scale, labeled "strongly agree," "somewhat agree," "undecided," "somewhat disagree," and "strongly disagree" and transformed into a 5–1 metric scale for the analyses. The four items for measuring intention loaded on one common dimension in the exploratory factor analysis with adequate reliability (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .83$ ).

### **Economic and Social Values**

To evaluate academics' value positions, the survey asked respondents to indicate the degree to which they felt responsible for contributing to a set of discipline-related aims with their work. The initial item set included economic views, social perspectives, and less distinct aims, such as increasing customer orientation. A purification process, using exploratory factor analyses and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values for all constructs, produced a 5-item measure of social values (see Table 2) that reflects the human-centered worldview (Giacalone & Thompson, 2006). To operationalize quality of life (Inglehart, 1997; Ray & Anderson, 2000), balance of individual and community needs (Gozdz, 1995), social well-being (Keyes, 1998), and desire for greater

voice in personal and social decisions (Inglehart, 1997; Ray & Anderson, 2000), the items asked about the academics' identification with the aims of *social justice*, *ethnic equality*, *employee orientation*, *human rights protection*, and *gender equality*. The reliability of this measure was good (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .90$ ).

The economic value measure reflects a clear focus on increasing profit (Friedman, 1970) and shareholder value (Rappaport, 1986), perspectives that have been investigated in prior research into managers' and students' economic and social values (Etheredge, 1999; Hunt, Kiecker, & Chonko, 1990; Singhapakdi, Vitell, Rallapalli, & Kraft, 1996). The purification process resulted in a 2-item measure. The resulting Cronbach's  $\alpha$  value of .67 is a weakness in the measurement model but also can be explained by the limited number of applied items and still appears acceptable (Malhotra, 2009).

### **Perceived Support for Influencing Values**

Local and disciplinary colleagues (Lichty & Stewart, 2000; Trowler & Knight, 1999) and the companies and students who are business schools' key stakeholders (Reingold, 1998) may have substantial influences on the socialization process and academics' related perceptions. I thus consider these four players who may support or hinder an individual academic's intention to exert a value influence on students. By including companies and

**TABLE 2**  
**Principal Component Analyses ( $n = 627$ ; First Half)**

	Intention	Economic Values	Social Values	Perceived Support
I have the intention to influence students' values through				
1. Undergraduate teaching	<b>.730</b>	-.016	.124	.164
2. Graduate teaching	<b>.879</b>	-.016	.005	.158
3. PhD teaching	<b>.811</b>	-.006	.038	.073
4. Executive teaching	<b>.788</b>	.084	.180	.101
I feel responsible for contributing with my work to this aim:				
1. To make corporations more profitable	.039	<b>.867</b>	-.103	.058
2. To increase shareholder value	-.013	<b>.846</b>	.003	.145
3. To create social justice in your country	.110	-.055	<b>.807</b>	.013
4. To increase ethnic equality	.073	-.045	<b>.880</b>	.021
5. To make corporations more employee oriented	.120	.059	<b>.733</b>	.047
6. To protect human rights	.062	-.056	<b>.900</b>	.060
7. To increase gender equality	.018	-.043	<b>.873</b>	.078
Trying to influence students' values is generally supported by				
1. Colleagues in my school/department	.070	.029	-.012	<b>.854</b>
2. Colleagues in my discipline	.112	.023	.052	<b>.850</b>
3. My students	.180	.027	.036	<b>.708</b>
4. My business contacts	.112	.184	.105	<b>.669</b>
Cronbach's alpha	.83	.67	.90	.79

Note. Bold factor loadings indicate factor attribution.

students, I particularly note the strong influence of the corporate world on business school teaching (Trank & Rynes, 2003) and the interactivity between academics and students in adult socialization processes (Bengtson, Kasschau, & Ragan, 1977). Thus the perceived support measure asks whether "Trying to influence students' values is generally supported by (a) colleagues of my school/department; (b) colleagues of my discipline; (c) my students; and (d) my business contacts." A Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of .79 indicates adequate reliability.

### Academic Tenure

Respondents indicated which of the following job positions best describes their current situation: "no paid position," "a temporary position," "a permanent position (> 1 year but not lifetime)," or "a lifetime (e.g., tenured) position." The latter option indicates they are tenured; the first three represent nontenured job status. Academic tenure is thus a binary manifest variable (1 = tenured; 0 = nontenured). The multiple nontenured options ensured completeness and enabled respondents to describe their situations accurately. The expression "lifetime (e.g., tenured)" helped make the measure applicable across various countries.

### Control Variables

To validate the results of the regression analysis, I used gender, age, and the time that respondents spent on teaching tasks as controls. These controls reflect possible value-related gender influences (Lämsä et al., 2003), associations between age and tenure, and the potential marginalization of intended value influences for academics who have minimal teaching assignments (Tang & Chamberlain, 2003). All controls were manifest variables, with items asking whether respondents were male or female, the year they were born (transformed into age), and the statement "Currently my effective professional activities break down to (approx.) \_\_\_\_ % of teaching."

### Measurement Model Evaluation

The exploratory factor analysis applied the main component approach with Varimax rotation to the first half of the sample and extracted 68.8% of the data variation. To assess the reliability and validity of the four established measures, I calculated Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficients for each construct. Further support of reliability and validity comes from a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS for the model's four multi-item measures. The over-

all fit statistics indicate that the model provides acceptable fit to the data, with  $\chi^2(84, N = 627) = 284.0, p < .001$ . Furthermore, the goodness of fit (GFI) = .94, adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) = .92, comparative fit index (CFI) = .95, incremental fit index (IFI) = .95, and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .94 all showed acceptable values greater than .9 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). The root mean square residual (RMR) = .061 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .062 both fell below the suggested .08 threshold (Byrne, 1998; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996), in further support for the measurement model. The squared correlation of each pair of constructs was smaller than the average variance explained by each of these constructs, which indicates discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). I also found support for convergent validity, because the  $t$  values for all constructs are significant at  $p < .01$  (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Thus all the statistics indicate the acceptable reliability and validity of the established measures.

I next validated the measures for hypotheses testing based on the second half of the sample. The exploratory factor analysis indicated the same factorial structure as for the first half and extracted 67.7% of the data variation. The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  indicated adequate reliabilities of .82 (intention), .71 (economic values), .90 (social values), and .78 (support). The CFA also supported the measurement model with the following fit statistics:  $\chi^2(84, n = 627) = 335.2, p < .001$ ; GFI = .93, AGFI = .90, CFI = .94, IFI = .94, TLI = .92, RMR = .055, RMSEA = .069. Convergent and discriminant validity also were supported. The construct means, standard deviations, and correlations for the second half appear in Table 3.

### Analyses

To assess the measures' validity, I first investigated missing items. With an average portion of less than 2% per item, they are normal (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Furthermore, the missing items did not bias the results, because they did not correlate with item values (Little & Rubin, 1987; Tsikriktsis, 2005). Measurement invariance already had been taken into account in the survey instrument development, which occurred in parallel in English and German to reduce the risk of language bias (Sechrest, Fay, & Zaidi, 1972). To achieve broader participation, translations into Chinese, French, Japanese, and Spanish also were provided. A backward translation procedure focus-

**TABLE 3**  
**Construct Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations ( $n = 627$ ; Second Half)**

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Intention <sup>a</sup>	4.04	.84							
2. Economic values <sup>a</sup>	3.60	1.03	.123**						
3. Social values <sup>a</sup>	3.39	1.03	.190***	-.019					
4. Support <sup>a</sup>	3.51	.78	.384***	.192***	.159***				
5. Tenure <sup>b</sup>	.61	.49	.069	-.014	.004	-.050			
6. Gender <sup>c</sup>	.24	.43	.023	-.064	.074	.028	-.123**		
7. Age in years	46.9	10.9	.014	-.039	.112**	-.105**	.383***	-.186***	
8. Teaching portion in %	36.7	16.7	.000	-.047	.073	.049	-.012	.091*	.078

Note. *M* = arithmetic mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

<sup>a</sup> Measured on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

<sup>b</sup> Treated as dichotomized variable: 1 = tenured; 0 = nontenured.

<sup>c</sup> Displayed as portion of females: 1 = female; 0 = male.

\*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ . All two-tailed tests.

ing on functional equivalence was applied to further assure invariance (Johnson, 1998).

To reduce the potential effects of cultural response styles, such as *yea-* or *nay-saying* (Mironsky & Ross, 1991) or middle versus extreme response styles (DeJong, Steenkamp, Fox, & Baumgartner, 2008), a narrow 5-step scale was applied. Because varying response rates and the sensitivity of the value-related issue are potential sources of a response bias, I controlled for differences between various communication means and for early versus late responses for each country but did not find any significant differences in construct means. Common method variance also did not appear to be an issue; the model integrates multiple moderations, and respondents are "unlikely to be guided by a cognitive map" (Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010: 179). Moreover, Harman's single-factor test showed that only 28% of the variance in the data could be attributed to a single factor, whereas the identified 4-factor solution accounts for nearly 70%. Another assessment of measurement invariance investigated factorial structures (strong factorial invariance), as suggested by Vandenberg and Lance (2000). All items loaded on the same constructs across all subsamples, and the factorial structures correspond across countries (Van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). However, I did not evaluate cognitive equivalence using a multiple-group CFA (e.g., Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 1998), considering the limited numbers of observations per cultural cluster (see Table 1).

Next, I performed a 3-step hierarchical ordinary least squares regression using SPSS 19 (Table 4), evaluating the influences of the three control variables on the dependent variable. Then I added economic and social values, support, and tenure to

quantify the hypothesized direct effects. Finally, to consider the three interaction effects, I added product terms to the regression model (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Edwards & Lambert, 2007). To avoid distortions resulting from scaling effects and nonessential multicollinearity between variables and their interaction terms, I mean-centered all variables (Marquardt, 1980), as is particularly advisable when integrating metric and categorical measures into a moderated regression model (Cohen et al., 2003). Each model provided local and global significances. The variance inflation factors for all variables were below 1.3 in the three tested models and thus did not indicate any multicollinearity. Changes in *R*-square values reveal the explanatory contribution offered by the addition of new variables.

## RESULTS

The construct means (Table 3) are all significantly above the scale mean ( $p < .001$  for all four constructs). Intention is rated highest. Moreover, management academics report significantly stronger economic values than social values ( $t = 3.56$ ;  $p < .001$ ).

The results of the regression analyses in Table 4 show that the control variables had no significant influence on intention in any of the model conditions. Adding direct effects reveals that economic values have an insignificant effect on intention ( $B = .047$ ,  $SE = .030$ , step 2), so I must reject Hypothesis 1. Social values are associated significantly positively with intention ( $B = .107$ ,  $SE = .030$ , step 2), in support of Hypothesis 2, and perceived support has a positive and significant regression coefficient ( $B = .383$ ,  $SE = .041$ , step 2), in support of

**TABLE 4**  
**Hierarchical Ordinary Least Squares Regression Model of Intention ( $n = 627$ ; Second Half)**

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	<.001	.033	<.001	.031	.011	.031
Controls						
Gender	.053	.080	.044	.073	.034	.073
Age	.001	.003	<0.001	.003	<.001	.003
Teaching portion	<.001	.002	-.001	.002	-.001	.002
Direct effects						
Economic values			.047	.030	.046	.030
Social values			.107***	.030	.102***	.030
Support			.383***	.041	.381***	.041
Tenure			.145*	.068	.148*	.068
Interaction effects						
Support $\times$ economic values					-.022	.035
Support $\times$ social values					-.083**	.036
Tenure $\times$ support					-.143	.084
$R^2$	.001		.176		.187	
$\Delta R^2$			.175		.011	
$F$	.187		18.9		14.2	

Note. Regression based on mean-centered variables.

\*  $p < .05$ .

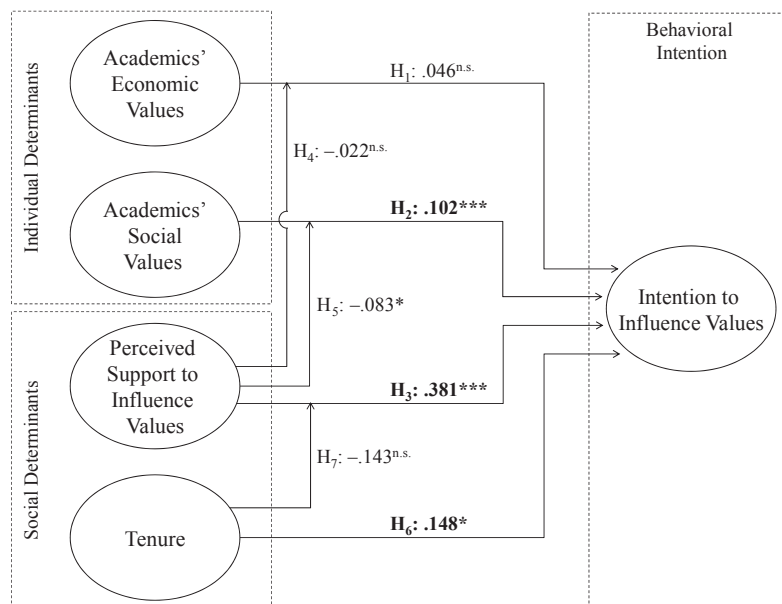
\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 6, regarding the impact of tenure on intention, also receives support from the significant positive relationship between tenure and intention ( $B = .145$ ,  $SE = .068$ , step 2).

Adding interaction terms contributed an addi-

tional .011 to the  $R$ -square value, and all significant direct effects remained significantly positive. The interaction terms' regression weights all were negative (Figure 2). The moderating effect of perceived support on the relationship between eco-



**FIGURE 2**

**Empirically Evaluated Model of the Intention to Influence Values.** Note. Supported hypotheses are in bold. Based on regression analysis including undisplayed control variables (listed in Table 4). \* $p < .05$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$ .



conomic values and intention remained insignificant ( $B = -.022$ ,  $SE = .035$ ), which rejects Hypothesis 4. The impact of perceived support on the social values–intention relationship is significant ( $B = -.083$ ,  $SE = .036$ ) but negative, in contrast to Hypothesis 5. Finally, the measured moderating effect of tenure on the perceived support–intention relationship supports Hypothesis 7 in its expected negative direction but fails to reach the significance threshold ( $B = -.143$ ,  $SE = .084$ ).

## DISCUSSION

I started by noting the failure of business schools to fulfill the demand for more value-oriented graduates. A better understanding of management academics' subjective intentions to influence values thus appears critical for business schools if they hope to exert an effective value-related influence. I thus posed the question, what determines management academics' intentions to influence student values? I have modeled management academics' intentions to influence values in a socialization context. In particular, I considered economic and social values as individual determinants and perceived support and academic tenure as social and structural determinants.

The empirical results show that social values, rather than economic ones, are more associated with academics' intentions to influence values. Accordingly, the general assumption that more central value positions have higher behavioral relevance (Verplanken & Holland, 2002), and thus correspond with increased behavioral intentions, is not useful for explaining the results. The insignificant moderating effect of perceived support on the economic values–intention relationship adds to the picture: Value influence in management academia is not associated with economic value positions. In contrast, the positive relationship between social values and intention supports the sense that management academics cannot shake off their personal values when they enter the classroom. These results also align with research that describes effective value socialization at the university as nurturing (Trocchia & Berkowitz, 1999) and associated more with feminine social values (Lämsä, Säkkinen, & Turjanmaa, 2000).

Regarding perceived external support as a determinant of value influence attempts, I found the path that recognizes management academics' environment, or the socialization context, as the strongest predictor of academics' intentions to influence values. This result extends the relevance of socialization effects, from students' value social-

ization to the socialization of management academics in their own institutions and communities. It also is in line with existing research that emphasizes the importance of academic socialization as a prerequisite for a successful career in academia (Lichty & Stewart, 2000; Trowler & Knight, 1999).

Finally, academic tenure is a social structure variable. As expected, tenured management academics have stronger intentions to influence values. That is, some characteristics, such as a broad range of experiences, are relevant for both receiving tenure and for effective value-related mentoring (Chatman, 1989; Tang & Chamberlain, 2003).

In the relationship between individual and social variables, perceived support is the strongest predictor of academics' intentions to influence values, stronger even than their own values. Noting the correspondence of formal socialization with the institutional level and informal approaches with the individual level, these results emphasize the importance of a formal context for effective socialization. By connecting Trocchia and Berkowitz (1999) and Leavitt (1991), I asserted that formal socialization approaches convey self-directed behavior and a top-down model, whereas in informal personal socialization approaches, leadership is an integrative task, oriented toward others. In support of this claim, only social values, oriented toward others, and not economic values, explain academics' intentions. This result thus complements the finding by Rutherford, Parks, Cavazos, and White (2012: this issue) who investigate structural variables as determinants of value-related education and business ethics courses in particular.

The negative moderating effect of perceived support on the transformation of social values into related intentions also reveals the competition between self-directed and other-oriented approaches. The more socialization is formalized and externally supported, the weaker the transformation of management academics' social values through informal socialization. This finding does not offer support for the suggested explanation that external rewards and perceived support strengthen value-congruent behaviors (Mortimer & Lorence, 1979). That is, academic institutions might increase academics' intentions by supporting value influences, but they also need to leave sufficient space for informal influences. First, academics must bring their own social values into the classroom, and second, students need role models that display consideration of others and space for individual thoughts and behaviors in the context of the academic institution.

## IMPLICATIONS

Universities, colleges, and departments have an opportunity to increase the intentions of their academic staff to influence values—and thus presumably increase actual impacts on values—by supporting their efforts at value influence. Many institutions already apply instruments of formal value socialization, such as value statements and academic honor codes. However, the results suggest that related activities and a curriculum designed to create space for value-relevant teaching content would further enhance academics' intentions.

Students' limited value-related preparation (Bennis & O'Toole, 2005) thus appears to stem *not* from instructors' preference to avoid engaging students in socially relevant practice but rather from their perception that there are external hurdles to such engagement. To influence values, academics must do so in the classroom but also demonstrate the influence to their peers and colleagues. For example, they can provide a model of how to be an integrative value agent (Moosmayer, 2011) by acting in a supportive manner and demonstrating how to bring values into the classroom, such as by inviting business leaders to participate in value-related classroom discussions (Lämsä et al., 2008). This tactic also could have a viral effect and increase colleagues' awareness of available support, which in turn should improve their intentions. Such role modeling implies that the academic has overcome any possible hurdles to demonstrating and acting on the values of management education and business practice. This method also effectively connects formal and informal approaches to value socialization. However, a challenge remains: to develop a productive combination of formal and informal aspects without neglecting external support or quenching informal approaches through overformalization.

At the collective level of the scientific community, associations and academies such as the AOM can play an important role in developing opportunities and supporting value-related influences. A first step might be to put value-relevant issues such as "Doing Well by Doing Good" on agendas and inviting members to "Dare to Care." Such themes offer support for value-related issues and thus can create greater awareness of social values among members and the management community overall. Finally, students, as key stakeholders, may question the value-related roots and consequences of any content and even demand value-reflective teaching.

## FURTHER RESEARCH

My work here focuses on management academics' subjective intentions to influence values. Their influence tactics must be intentional to enable schools, administrators, and academies to manage or support them. However, I do not mean to imply that they can ignore the possibility that value influences occur unconsciously. The link between intention and actual influences is outside the scope of this research, but it deserves more detailed investigation. Case-based approaches could be effective in this effort; it may be difficult to evaluate an actual impact with a larger scope.

The present research also notes two value perspectives: economic and social values with respect to academics' own teaching. This approach reflects my aim to understand the interaction among internal, subjective, and external social and structural influences on management academics' intentions. However, in line with research that identifies role-specific values (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994) and emphasizes the importance of such influences in adult socialization (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978), a more differentiated view of academics' value bases might provide further insight into academics' value positions in relation to major stakeholders (e.g., companies, students, colleagues). Further research could attempt to empirically substantiate the underlying assumption that academics' intentions to influence reflect their own values.

To better understand value influences, it also is important to gain a clearer picture of the interaction of identity-related processes at individual and organizational levels. For example, investigations of how an organizational identity orientation (Brickson, 2005) influences value awareness and value positions in academic institutions might be fruitful. Furthermore, in the area of management and leadership research, the possibility of value influences of academics on the corporate world suggests the need for a better understanding of how academics contribute to any specific corporation's values.

In summary, turning management into a better, more ethical profession requires a joint effort. Individual academics and their own values play important roles, but they also need support from a foundation that establishes students' value-oriented development as a goal of colleges, business schools, academies, and the students themselves—as well as by the corporate world.

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